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ABSTRACT

The four sections of this guide provide information for use by educators who wish to find means other than standardized tests for assessing the reading performance of students. The first section of the guide deals with two methods of determining the readability of classroom materials, the Fry Readability Graph and the cloze procedure. The second section offers techniques and measures for assessing students' attitudes toward reading. The third section discusses standardized tests and provides a selection of informal assessment measures. The last section contains the results of a survey designed to gather information about the measurement techniques for evaluating reading in use in one school district. (FL)

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ALTERNATIVE TECHNIQUES

FOR EVALUATING

READING

IN THE CLASSROOM

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PREFACE

In November, 1974 the Ad Hoc Committee Respecting Reading submitted its report to the Board of Education for the Borough of North York. The Committee represented the views of community and professional groups in North York who realized that competence in reading is essential for successful mastery of the various disciplines in the educational system. The recommendations of the Report, which included items concerning curriculum, personnel, budget, professional development, accountability and reporting, were passed, *in toto*, with the intent of establishing a borough-wide policy in reading.

The Alternative Measurements in Reading Committee was established in 1975 in accordance with a recommendation contained in Item F2 of the Ad Hoc Committee's Report:

> External resources knowledgeable in reading, psychology, curriculum development, and tests and measurement be enlisted to work with the co-ordinator of English and representatives of the Research Department, the office of the Superintendents and classroom teachers and specialists in reading, in establishing valid measurement and evaluation methods for reading skills in North York.

The membership of the Alternative Measurement in Reading Committee was as follows:

Mr. P. Barker[1]	Program Leader, Reading
Mr. P. Cassidy	Research Consultant
Ms. E. Chambers	O.S.S.T.F. Representative
Mrs. R. Charlesworth	Co-ordinator of English

---

1. Mr. P. Barker replaced Mrs. P. Galloway effective September 1, 1975.

Mr. P. Cober	Program Leader, Reading
Ms. P. Crawford	Senior Research Assistant
Mr. W. Day[1]	Acting Co-ordinator of English
Mrs. P. Galloway	Program Leader, Reading
Mr. J. Horton	J. H. & S.S. Principal's Assoc.
Mr. R. Lebans	Heads and Chairman Assoc.
Mrs. A. McGee	Program Leader, Reading
Mrs. L. Noble	N.V.E.T.F. Representative
Mr. E. C. Porter	Assistant Superintendent
Mr. G. Rae	Elementary Principal's Assoc.
Ms. L. Swain	Program Leader, Reading
DR. A. E. Virgin	Director of Research
Mrs. R. Wells	Teacher

Mrs. S. Hunter, Project Research Assistant, was hired to assist the Committee in its tasks.

The Committee wishes to thank all teachers who contributed to Alternative Techniques for Evaluating Reading in the Classroom by pilot-testing and evaluating instruments, and the members of the 1975 Reading Course who completed the Reading Questionnaire (p.83). Special thanks are also extended for the contribution of those teachers who formed the Secondary Sub-Committee. When authorities are identified the positions referred to are those held at the time of publication.

Sue Hunter
Research Assistant
Department of Educational
Research Development

Roberta Charlesworth
Co-ordinator of English
Curriculum Department

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1. Mr. W. Day was Acting Co-ordinator of English from the establishment of the Committee to January 1, 1975 to January 1, 1976.

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INTRODUCTION

The field of testing, evaluation and measurement is complex. Although standardized tests are useful for some aspects of overall evaluation they are limited in the kinds of information they yield. There is no one set of tests that provides definitive assessments of students, materials, or programs.

Standardized tests may not be measuring the skills and knowledge that are amongst the highest priorities in school programs, and in the communities from which the schools draw their population, and they may be semi-obsolete with respect to current language-use and contemporary references. Despite this situation, it has been customary for some educational jurisdictions and some segments of the public to place considerable faith in the results of standardized tests. If there are to be positive outcomes of evaluation and measurement procedures, and if abuses are to be avoided, it is essential that the various uses of tests, the various kinds of tests and evaluation procedures, the limitations of any test, and the interpretation of the results, be understood. For this reason, the committee which was formed to carry out the mandate of Item F2 of the Ad Hoc Committee Report has, in addition to commenting on the uses of standardized tests, provided the following:

(1) a variety of teacher-recommended sources for determining the appropriateness of the reading levels of materials being used or intended for use,

(2) a selection of means for recognizing whether a student's attitude to reading is apt to help or hinder him,[1]

(3) a battery of informal measures for diagnosing reading levels.

A judicious selection of these informal measures in all classrooms would unobtrusively monitor the progress of the students in relationship to the programs offered.

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1. The terms "he" or "his" when used in this document, are used generically, and are intended to refer to and include students (or teachers, where appropriate) of both sexes.

Alternative Techniques for Evaluating Reading in the Classroom is divided into four sections. Sections 1, 2 and 3 contain the informal measures. Section 4 contains the results of a survey designed to gather information regarding the measurement techniques currently in use in North York for evaluating reading.

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Section 2	Attitudes Toward Reading	Blue pages
Section 3	Diagnosis of Reading	Pink pages
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READABILITY

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INTRODUCTION TO READABILITY

Teachers have observed that students who have difficulty reading a particular textbook can sometimes read a different author's treatment of the same topic with ease. The teacher can make the most effective use of the texts he has to offer by matching the student with a text appropriate for a given assignment. Each student has three levels at which he can deal with classroom materials (see Table 1 p.6), and the significance of these levels must be recognized by the teacher when distributing texts. The ease with which a textbook can be read is affected by such factors as the author's style and vocabulary, the amount and quality of visual material contained within it, and the experiential background, maturity and interest that the student brings to it. Students have been known to read with satisfaction materials in which they have a strong interest even though these materials would appear to be beyond their reading level.

The two methods of determining the readability of classroom materials presented here are Fry's Readability Graph and the Cloze Procedure.

Fry's Graph is a mechanical method of determining the grade level of the reading materials tested. It is based on the number of syllables and the length of sentences in the material, and is claimed to be accurate to within one grade level. With a knowledge of the reading level of each student, and the readability level of the texts, the teacher can help the student choose texts that are appropriate for his abilities.

The Cloze Procedure differs from Fry's in that it is constructed by the teacher from classroom instructional materials and is used to determine how well the student performs on these materials. When the classroom teacher has had his students follow the Cloze Procedure on the classroom learning materials, a measure of the levels at which each student can read these materials will have been attained.

The Cloze Procedure and Fry's Graph each have value as one of the measures which can be used, <u>along with</u> the teacher's previous experience with the text and his knowledge of his student's interests, abilities and background, to match students with appropriate reading materials.

TABLE 1

READING LEVELS[1]

LEVEL	DESCRIPTION
Instructional	This is the teaching level. Students need to be guided in their reading of material at this level; the material should be challenging but not too difficult.
Independent	This is the level at which students can engage in supplementary reading, and study independently with comprehension and satisfaction. These are materials which can be read easily without assistance.
Frustrational	This level is to be avoided since the material is too difficult. Students continually subjected to materials in this range will become frustrated and discouraged.

1. For further information regarding reading levels please see Informal Measure Section 3, Page 39.

TITLE: Fry's Readability Graph

PURPOSE: To determine the approximate reading grade level of written material.

USEFUL FOR: All materials (novels, texts, etc.) at all grade levels. The results of pilot-testing this instrument in North York indicate that it is most useful with learning materials intended for science, home economics, history, geography, and social studies, and vocational programs.

COMPLETED BY: Teachers, principals, etc.

MATERIALS REQUIRED: Fry's Readability Graph and the material to be tested.

DESCRIPTION: Examination of textbooks indicates that as the intended grade level of the material rises, the sentences tend to become longer and structurally more complex, and the vocabulary becomes more advanced. Fry's method uses these two characteristics then, sentence length and vocabulary, as the basis for determining the readability of the material being tested. Fry uses the average number of sentences per 100 words to describe the sentence length, and the average number of syllables per 100 words to determine the relative difficulty of the vocabulary. When these two variables are plotted on the graph, the intersection point will fall into one of the grade-level areas, thus indicating the approximate reading grade-level of the text. The results obtained by this method are claimed to be accurate to within one grade level. With this knowledge of the reading-level of the texts, the teacher can match the student with the textbooks that are appropriate for his abilities.

PROCEDURE:

1. Choose three 100-word selections, one from near the beginning of the book being tested, one from about the middle, and one from near the end, omitting numerals and proper nouns in the counting.

Edward Fry is a Professor of Education and Director of the Reading Centre at Rutgers - The State University, New Brunswick, New Jersey (1968).

Procedure (Cont'd)

2. Count the total number of sentences in each 100-word passage, estimating to the nearest tenth of a sentence. Average these three numbers.[1]

3. Count the number of syllables in each 100-word passage. Again, average the results.

4. Find the intersection of the number of syllables (reading along the top of the graph) and the number of sentences (reading down the left hand side of the graph). This indicates the grade level of the material to within approximately one grade.

RESULTS PREDICTED:

The Fry's Graph is based on a prediction criterion of 50 to 75 percent comprehension. That is, if this device yields a readability score of seven on the material tested, it may be interpreted as a prediction that students reading on a seventh grade level will read this material with 50 to 75 percent accuracy.

REFERENCES:

Fry, E., "A Readability Formula That Saves Time", in Journal of Reading, Vol. 11, No. 7 (April, 1968), 513-516.

Kennedy, K., "Reading Level Determination For Selected Texts", in The Science Teacher, Vol. 41, No. 3 (March, 1974), 26-27.

McCuaig, S.M. and Hutchings, B., "Using Fry's Graph to Describe the Variations of Readability", in Journal of Reading, Vol. 18, No. 4 (January, 1975), 298-300.

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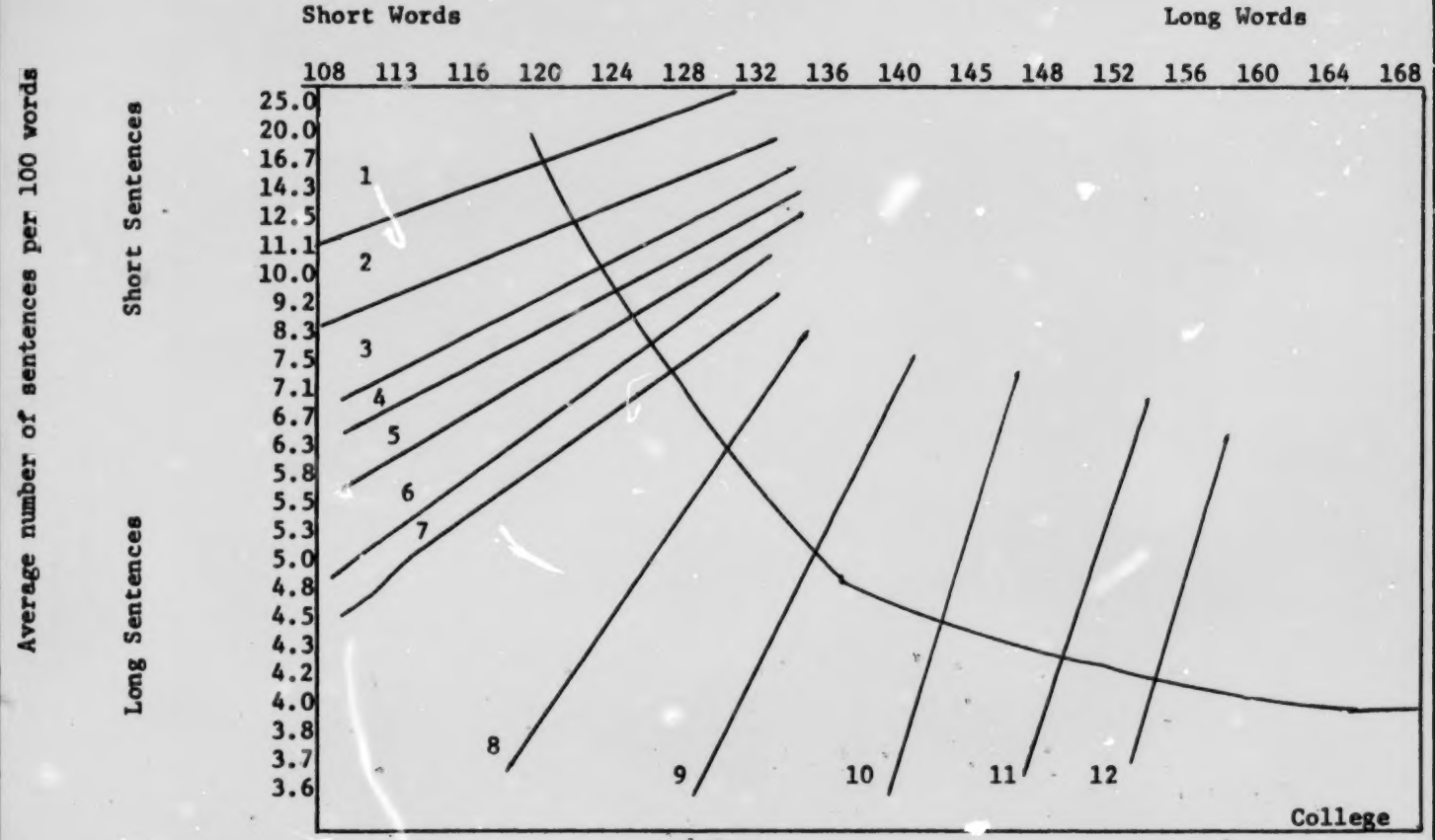
1. If there is a wide variation in the sentence length or syllable count for the three passages select several more passages and average them in before plotting.

TABLE 2

GRAPH FOR ESTIMATING READABILITY

By Edward Fry, Rutger University Reading Center
Average number of syllables per 100 words



TITLE: Cloze Readability Procedure

PURPOSE: To determine if instructional materials are comprehensible to the students at the level of their intended use.

USEFUL FOR: All learning materials, if adapted appropriately, but particularly useful for history, geography and other non-mathematical materials at the intermediate and secondary levels.

COMPLETED BY: Students.

MATERIALS REQUIRED: Copies of passages of material to be tested with deleted words replaced by blanks for each student.

DESCRIPTION: In determining the readability of textual material, it has been found that the closer the test procedures and materials approximate actual teaching materials, the more realistic and functional will be the reading level ascertained. The Cloze Readability Procedure, which is constructed from classroom instructional materials, meets those requirements. A passage, or a series of passages, is chosen from the material to be tested; words are systematically deleted, and the student is instructed to replace the blanks with the words he feels the author used. Thus, the student's comprehension of the material is measured by how well he can reproduce the author's passage.

PROCEDURE:

1. From the text being tested select one or more representative passages, each one from 250 to 300 words long. The passage should begin with the first sentence in a paragraph and should not rely heavily on the preceding paragraph for meaning.

2. Leaving the first sentence complete and beginning with the fifth word in the second sentence, delete every fifth word until fifty words have been deleted. Leave the last sentence complete. All parts of speech will probably be represented in the words deleted. Contractions and hyphenated words should be counted as one word. All punctuation should be retained. When the fifth word is a proper noun or a numeral delete the sixth word and continue from there.

Procedure (Cont'd)

3. The passage should be transcribed to work sheets with blanks of equal length replacing the deleted words (10 or 12 spaces of underlining are recommended). It should then be administered, untimed, to the student.

4. The passage is subsequently scored, a correct response being the same word used in the original passage. Synonyms are incorrect. Minor misspellings are acceptable if they correspond syntactically to the deleted word. If more than one passage was used, the results may be averaged.

5. The scores should be multiplied by two to obtain a percentage score. They will be lower than reading comprehension scores obtained on other tests, but, as with other results, the Cloze scores fall into ranges of readability, indicating that the material will be useful for some purposes but not for others.

TABLE 3

Cloze Score	% Cloze Score	Corresponding Comphrehension	Reading Level
29 - 50	58 - 100	90%	Independent
22 - 28	44 - 57	75%	Instructional
0 - 21	0 - 43	50%	Frustrational

Thus, students who can exactly identify 58 percent or more, of the words will be able to read the selection independently,and materials which fall in this range may be used by them for independent study. A score of 44 - 57 percent implies that the material is at the student's instructional level and that he will require guidance in the use of this material. Students who identify fewer than 44 percent of the words will find reading this material a frustrating experience and should not be subjected to such an ordeal. In contrast, students who score very high on the Cloze Procedure may be bored when this material is used for instructional purposes and will require more challenging reading assignments.[1]

1. For additional information on the use of the Cloze Procedure, see Section 3, page 48.

REFERENCES:

Bormuth, J. R., "The Cloze Readability Procedure", in Elementary English, XLV, No. 4 (April, 1968), 429-436.

Jones, M.B., and Pikulski, E.C., "Cloze for the Classroom", in Journal of Reading, Vol. 17, No. 6 (March, 1974), 432-438.

Pennock, C.D., "Using Cloze to Select Appropriate Level Instructional Materials", in Elementary English, Vol. 5, No. 6 (September, 1973), 940-941.

ATTITUDES TOWARD READING

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INTRODUCTION TO ATTITUDES TOWARD READING

The development of good reading habits in students, and of good attitudes toward reading, is an important educational objective. The attitudes that students retain are sometimes as important as the skills they have mastered. It is recognized that a student's attitude toward reading both affects and is affected by his reading achievement. Consequently, measurement of these attitudes is as important as an evaluation of the reading program and the student's progress.

Several different methods of measuring attitudes toward reading are presented in the pages that follow. The first four methods listed contain a formal attitude scale which has both reliability and validity, and provide a quantitative representation of the student's attitude. The less formal methods require of the tester both preparation and some discretion in categorizing the responses; the results provide a more qualitative description of the student's attitude.

TABLE 4

MEASUREMENT OF ATTITUDES TOWARD READING

Instrument Name	Grade Level Elem.	Inter.	Sec.	Completed By:	Technique	Useful for pre and post-testing
FORMAL METHODS:						
Este's Attitude Scale		X	X	Student	Statement rating	Yes
Kennedy's and Halinski's Reading Attitude Inventory	X	X		Teacher	Checklist	Yes
A Scale of Reading Based on Behaviour	X			Student	Paired Comparison Survey	Yes
Primary Pupil Reading Attitude Inventory		X		Student	Paired Comparison Survey	Yes
INFORMAL METHODS:						
Reading Attitude Survey		X	X	Student	Statement rating	Yes
Projective Tests of Attitude	X	X		Student	Interview	Yes
"What is Reading?"	X	X	X	Student	Interview of Essay	No

Other informal techniques include sentence and story completion, picture interpretation, role-playing and a diary.

ESTES' ATTITUDE SCALE

TABLE 5

ATTITUDE SCALE

A = strongly agree
B = agree
C = undecided
D = disagree
E = strongly disagree

1. Reading is for learning but not for enjoyment.
2. Money spent on books is well-spent.
3. There is nothing to be gained from reading books.
4. Books are a bore.
5. Reading is a good way to spend spare time.
6. Sharing books in class is a waste of time.
7. Reading turns me on.
8. Reading is only for grade grubbers.
9. Books aren't usually good enough to finish.
10. Reading is rewarding to me.
11. Reading becomes boring after about an hour.
12. Most books are too long and dull.
13. Free reading doesn't teach me anything.
14. There should be more time for free reading during the school day.
15. There are many books which I hope to read.
16. Books should not be read except for class requirements.
17. Reading is something I can do without.
18. A certain amount of summer vacation should be set aside for reading.
19. Books make good presents.
20. Reading is dull.

1

DESCRIPTION:

The Estes' Attitude Scale is composed of a list of twenty statements related to reading, eight of them positive and twelve negative. The student is asked to respond to each statement on a one-to-five point scale (A to E) varying from "I strongly agree" to "I strongly disagree". The positive statements are then scored from 5 to 1 (A to E) and the negatives from 1 to 5 (A to E).

Thomas H. Estes is the Associate Director of the McGuffey Reading Centre, University of Virginia (1971).

1. Although re-wording of several items may produce a language that is more comprehensible to the students, it may also affect the validity and scoring of the instrument.

A summation of the values of each student's responses will produce a quantitative representation of his attitude toward reading, with a high sum representing a positive attitude and a low score representing a negative attitude.

PROCEDURE:

1. Reproduce the scale and draw up a separate answer sheet with five multiple-choice spaces (A to E) for each of the twenty items.

2. Give the scale and answer sheet to the students, instructing them to choose the answers that best indicate the way they feel, and assuring them that their responses will not affect their grade or standing in the course.

3. Since some items are positive statements, and to "agree" to a positive statement is to reflect a positive attitude, while to "agree" to a negative statement reflects a negative attitude, the following table should be used in scoring (Table 6).

TABLE 6

SCORES OF RESPONSES TO ESTES' ATTITUDE SCALE

Items	Response Values A	B	C	D	E
The negative items: Nos. 1,3,4,6,8,9,11,12 13,16,17,20	1	2	3	4	5
The positive items: Nos. 2,5,7,10,14,15,18,19	5	4	3	2	1

4. The student's score (the sum of the values of the responses to all items) is a reflection of his attitude toward reading. From a comparison of the results of the Estes' Scale and a direct self-rating and teacher-rating scale, it would appear that a score of 70 to 80 reflects a neutral attitude toward reading. A positive attitude would be represented by a score of 80 or more, and a negative attitude by a score of less than 70. Extreme scores indicate very positive and very negative attitudes towards reading.

REFERENCES:

Estes, T. H., "A Scale to Measure Attitudes Toward Reading", in Journal of Reading, Vol. 15, No. 2 (November, 1971), 135-138.

Dulin, K. L., and Chester, R. D., "A Validation Study of the Estes' Attitude Scale", in Journal of Reading, Vol. 18, No. 1 (October, 1974), 56-59.

Alexander, J. E., and Filler, R.C., "Measures of Reading Attitudes", in Elementary English, Vol. 52, No. 3 (March, 1975), 376-378.

A SCALE OF READING ATTITUDE BASED ON BEHAVIOUR

C. Glennon Rowell
(Adapted for North York)

DESCRIPTION:

"A Scale of Reading Attitude Based on Behaviour" was designed as an instrument to measure the reading attitude of those students who have reading difficulties. Children exhibit behavioural patterns which reflect their attitude toward reading, and this behaviour can be recorded by an observer using this instrument (Table 7). Three categories of behaviour were selected to present a comprehensive picture of reading in the elementary school. Of the fifteen items comprising the reading attitude scale, items one through five refer to the first category, reading as it takes place in reading classes; items six through twelve represent the reading-for-pleasure category (this includes reading and discussing library books, trade books, magazines, newspapers and other printed matter); while the last three items relate to how children feel about reading in the content areas. The observer is requested to study the student's behaviour over more than a brief period of time before responding to the fifteen statements. The scale is of a "Likert" design; the observer is asked to respond to each statement on a five-point scale, varying from "Always Occurs", giving a weighting of 5, to "Never Occurs", weighted 1. The middle choices are similarly weighted 4, 3, and 2. The summated ratings result in an attitude score; a high score reflects a positive attitude toward reading and a low score reflects a negative attitude. Although the scale was developed to offset problems encountered in measuring the reading attitude of children who have critical reading problems, it can be used with all children. This scale will also afford the comparison of scores in a pre-test to post-test situation.

C. Glennon Rowell is an assistant professor of Florida State University (1972).

TABLE 7

A SCALE OF READING ATTITUDE BASED ON BEHAVIOUR
(Adapted for North York)

NAME OF STUDENT_____ GRADE_____ DATE_____

SCHOOL_____ OBSERVER_____

Directions: Check the most appropriate of the five blanks opposite each item below. Only one blank should be checked for each item.

		Always Occurs	Often Occurs	Occasionally Occurs	Seldom Occurs	Never Occurs
1.	The student exhibits a strong desire to have reading instruction take place.	____	____	____	____	____
2.	The student is enthusiastic and interested in participating during reading instruction.	____	____	____	____	____
3.	The student spontaneously reacts to what he is reading, poses his own questions and seeks answers through reading.	____	____	____	____	____
4.	With teacher guidance he poses his own questions about what he is reading and seeks answers to these questions.	____	____	____	____	____
5.	The student willingly reads orally to prove a point or to share an enjoyable experience.	____	____	____	____	____
6.	The student expresses a desire to be read to by you or someone else, and he attentively listens while this is taking place.	____	____	____	____	____

	Always Occurs	Often Occurs	Occasionally Occurs	Seldom Occurs	Never Occurs
7. The student makes an effort to read printed material on bulletin boards, chairs, charts, or other displays, having writing on them	___	___	___	___	___
8. The student elects to read a book when the class has permission to choose a "free-time" activity.	___	___	___	___	___
9. The student expresses genuine interest in going to the school's library.	___	___	___	___	___
10. The student discusses with you (the teacher) or members of the class those items he has read from the newspaper, magazines, or similar materials.	___	___	___	___	___
11. The student voluntarily and enthusiastically discusses with others the book he has read or is reading.	___	___	___	___	___
12. The student listens attentively while other students share their reading experiences with the group.	___	___	___	___	___
13. The student expresses eagerness to read printed materials in the content areas.	___	___	___	___	___
14. The student goes beyond the textbook or usual reading assignment in searching for other materials to read.	___	___	___	___	___

	Always Occurs	Often Occurs	Occasionally Occurs	Seldom Occurs	Never Occurs
15. The student contributes to group discussions that are based on reading assignments in the content area.	____	____	____	____	____

REFERENCES:

Rowell, C. Glennon, "An Attitude Scale for Reading," in The Reading Teacher, Vol. 25, No. 5 (Feb., 1972), 442-7

Alexander, J. E., and Filler, R. C., "Measures of Reading Attitudes", in Elementary English, Vol. 52, No. 3 (March, 1975), 376-8.

KENNEDY'S AND HALINSKI'S READING ATTITUDE INVENTORY
(Adapted for North York)

DESCRIPTION:

The Reading Attitude Inventory (Table 8) is composed of sixty-eight statements, some positive and some negative, all related to reading. The students are instructed to respond to these statements on a four-point "Likert" scale, the responses being "Strongly Agree", "Agree", "Disagree", and "Strongly Disagree". The positive items are scored 4,3,2 and 1 for response A to D; the negative statements are scored in reverse, 1,2,3 and 4, for A to D. When the value of each of the student's responses have been totalled, the result reflects the student's attitude toward reading. A high score reflects a positive attitude while a low score reflects a more negative attitude. This instrument can be utilized in a pre-test to post-test situation.

PROCEDURE:

1. The 68-Item Attitude Instrument should be reproduced for each student being tested, and each student should also receive an answer sheet with four multiple-choice spaces, A to D, for each of the 68 items.[1]

A	-	Strongly Agree	C	-	Disagree
B	-	Agree	D	-	Strongly Disagree

2. When test and answer sheet is being administered to the student he should be instructed to respond to the statement according to the way he feels. There are no time limits on this test.

3. The responses should be rated 4,3,2 and 1 for positive statements, and 1,2,3 and 4 for negative statements. Summation of the response ratings will give a total score for each student which reflects his attitude toward reading.

Larry D. Kennedy is an associate professor of Curriculum and Instruction, Illinois State University, Normal.
Ronald S. Halinski is director of the Measurement and Evaluation Service, Illinois State University, Normal.

1. If it is found that this instrument is too lengthy for efficiency, deleting every second item would provide the tester with a sufficiently valid and reliable device. If this group of statements is divided into two parts, the test can be used easily in a pre-test and post-test situation.

Negative Statements	Positive Statements
1,2,5,7,9,11,13,16,20,26, 27,30,35,37,38,39,44,45, 48,53,57,60,61,64.	3,4,6,8,10,12,14,15,17,18,19, 21,22,23,24,25,28,29,31,32, 33,34,36,40,41,42,43,46,47, 49,50,51,52,54,55,56,58,59,62, 63,65,66,67,68.

TABLE 8

68-ITEM ATTITUDE INSTRUMENT
(Adapted from Kennedy's and Halinski's Reading Attitude Inventory)

1. Reading is difficult for me.
2. I read only what I have to.
3. Reading helps me form opinions.
4. I would rather read than do anything else.
5. Authors seem to like words that are hard to understand.
6. I can forget my problems when I read.
7. It takes me a long time to read anything.
8. Reading broadens my imagination.
9. There are very few things that I find interesting to read.
10. Reading entertains me.
11. I dislike reading because most of the time I am being forced to read.
12. I don't believe there's anyone more interested in reading than I am.
13. I read too slowly.
14. Reading has always been my favorite pastime.
15. Reading gives me self-confidence.
16. It's hard to just sit and read.
17. Reading helps me find a better way to communicate with people.
18. I have very little trouble understanding what I read.
19. Reading is very important to me.
20. I don't care to take the time to read.
21. I can learn much about my future from reading.
22. I am a good reader.
23. Reading broadens my mind.
24. Reading is easy.
25. I like to read to learn about people.
26. Reading bores me.
27. Usually I do not understand what is happening in a story.
28. Reading keeps me informed.
29. Reading is a fun way of learning.
30. Reading is too complicated.
31. Reading improves my vocabulary.
32. I have never found an assigned reading to be boring.
33. I read a lot.
34. Reading helps me to understand problems that other people have.
35. Reading just doesn't appeal to me.
36. Books are an artistic expression.
37. When I read I can't keep my mind on the subject.
38. I can't sit still long enough to read.
39. Reading turns me off.
40. Reading helps me understand my personal problems.
41. Reading stimulates thought.
42. I have yet to read anything which I did not find interesting.

43. Reading helps me to identify with people I want to be like.
44. Reading is difficult because of those big words.
45. I am seldom in a mood to read.
46. I like to read about other people's experiences in life.
47. I sometimes become a character in the book I am reading.
48. I get tired when I read.
49. When I read there are very few words I do not understand.
50. I like keeping up with new ideas.
51. Reading relaxes me.
52. Reading is a pleasant pastime.
53. I always have to read material over and over to get anything out of it.
54. I am a very fast reader.
55. By reading I meet people and places I have never met before.
56. I enjoy taking tests over what I read.
57. It's hard to get interested in reading things which are assigned.
58. I read for hours at a time.
59. Whenever I have some free time I always read.
60. I hate to read.
61. I seldom get any news ideas from reading.
62. I am an avid reader.
63. Reading is always an exciting experience.
64. Reading takes too much concentration.
65. No one ever had to force me to read anything.
66. Reading helps you think about things in a new way.
67. I like to read.
68. All books are interesting.

REFERENCES:

Kennedy, L.D., and Halinski, R. S., "Measuring Attitudes: An Extra Dimension", in Journal of Reading, Vol. 18, No. 7 (April, 1975), 518-522.

PRIMARY PUPIL READING ATTITUDE INVENTORY

E. N. Askov and T. S. Fischbach

DESCRIPTION:

The Primary Pupil Reading Attitude Inventory measures a student's attitude toward reading by determining the number of times he chooses reading over other favourite recreational activities. Since it is a pre-requisite in testing primary pupils that neither reading nor writing be required, pictures are used. (Solitary figures are depicted to avoid any possible influence from picturing a child interacting with others). The pupil is instructed to choose between a picture of a child reading and a picture of a child participating in another recreational activity, by marking the picture depicting the activity he prefers to do after school and on week-ends. The pupil is given thirty choices; eighteen of them involve reading, while twelve are distractors, involving a choice between two non-reading recreational activities. Thus, the highest score possible, eighteen, indicates that the child chose reading above all other activities and reflects a good attitude toward reading. The lowest score possible, zero, indicates a poor attitude toward reading. Table 9 shows the pairing of the activities as well as the order of the picture pairs. The pictures which comprise the Primary Pupil Reading Attitude Inventory are contained in Tables 10 and 11 for girls and boys respectively.

E. N. Askov is at the University of Wisconsin (1973).

T. J. Fischbach is at the University of Wisconsin (1973).

TABLE 9

PAIRS OF PICTURES PRESENTED ON EACH PAGE

Item (Page)	Pictures		Item (Page)	Pictures	
1*	3	11	16	5	2
2*	4	11	17*	7	10
3	6	4	18	6	2
4	9	5	19*	1	4
5	5	11	20	4	5
6*	4	8	21	6	8
7	9	6	22*	3	2
8*	7	9	23	10	6
9	6	3	24	5	10
10*	11	7	25	11	1
11	5	3	26	6	11
12*	8	3	27*	10	9
13	1	6	28	1	5
14	7	5	29	6	7
15*	2	10	30	8	5

* Distractor items in which two non-reading activities are paired.

REFERENCES:

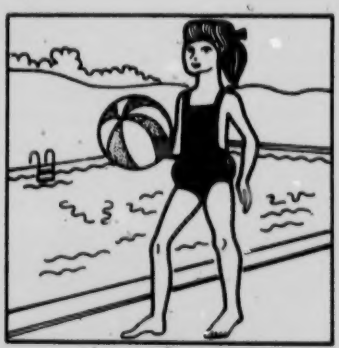
Askov, E. N., and Fischbach, T. J., "An Investigation of Primary Pupils' Attitudes Toward Reading". Journal of Experimental Education, Vol. 4, No. 3 (Spring, 1973), 1-7.

TABLE 10

Pictures Used in the Primary Pupil Reading Attitude Inventory

1

2


3

4

5

6

7

8

9

10

11

TABLE 11

Pictures Used in the Primary Pupil Reading Attitude Inventory

READING ATTITUDE SURVEY

David Gurney

DESCRIPTION:

The Reading Attitude Survey as designed by David Gurney can be readily re-constructed to measure attitudes towards reading in North York at the elementary level.

The Reading Attitude Survey has a paired comparison format: an activity, randomly chosen from a list of thirty-nine activities frequently engaged in by elementary school children, is paired with reading, and the student is instructed to choose one activity over the other. This procedure is repeated until all thirty-nine activities have been paired with reading. The frequency of choice of reading over the other activity is an index of the pupil's attitude toward reading. It may be useful for testing the attitudes of children from different cultural backgrounds, since the choice of activities to compare with reading is open to the teacher's discretion. Each user constructs his own list of activities to suit the nature of the community.

PROCEDURE:

This informal instrument can be constructed by selecting a series of thirty-nine activities which are frequently undertaken by elementary school children. The activities are randomly paired; a non-reading activity may be paired with a reading activity, or with another non-reading one. Thus,

swimming and reading,
watching T.V. and riding a bicycle,
reading and watching T.V.,

could be possible pairs of activities, with the student being instructed to choose his favourite pastime ("Circle the activity you would prefer to do in the evenings and on week-ends"). The use of some distractors (pairing of non-reading activities) will not affect the attitude score obtained and will make the instrument more enjoyable for the students. This pairing procedure is repeated until all thirty-nine activities have been paired with reading. Only those items which pair reading with a non-reading activity are scored; the total number of times a student chooses reading over other activities reflects his attitude toward reading.

David Gurney is a school psychologist at the Clarence Central School in Clarence, New York (1966).

REFERENCES:

Gurney, D., "The Effect of an Individual Reading Program on Reading Level and Attitude Toward Reading", in The Reading Teacher, Vol. 19, No. 4 (January, 1966), 277-280.

Alexander, J. E., and Filler, R. C., "Measures of Reading Attitudes", in Elementary English, Vol. 52, No. 3 (March, 1975), 376-378.

PROJECTIVE TESTS OF ATTITUDES
(Adapted for North York)

L. Lowery and W. Grafft

DESCRIPTION:

Since the Projective Tests of Attitude (PTOA) are administered orally to individual students and the responses are tape-recorded, this test can be useful for determining the reading attitudes of students with reading difficulties. The PTOA consists of three projective techniques: a "Word Association Test", a "Thematic Apperception Test? and a "Sentence Completion Test."

In the "WORD ASSOCIATION TEST" two key stimulus words, "book" and "read" are placed at random among eight generally neutral words. The ten words are then read aloud, one at a time, to the student, who is instructed to respond as rapidly as possible with the first three words that comes to mind.

In the "THEMATIC APPERCEPTION TEST" the student is shown a drawing of a child sitting at a desk reading a book. Since it is desirable to have the student relate as closely as possible to the child in the drawing, one of eight drawings, showing a male or female, black, Caucasian, or Oriental child, is chosen. The drawings contain no expression or influencing actions. After being allowed to study the picture, the student is requested to explain:

1. What is going on in the drawing,
2. What led up to the situation, and
3. What will happen after it.

In the "SENTENCE COMPLETION TEST" the pupils are instructed to supply an ending to each of the following unfinished sentences:

"Reading a book is ....."
"Most (boys;girls) like books that ....."
"One thing that turns some boys and girls against books is ....."

All responses are tape-recorded for further study.

Lawrence Lowery is an Assistant Professor in the School of Education at the University of California at Berkley.

William Grafft is Principal of the Ralph Bunche Elementary School in Oakland, California, (1958).

TABLE 12

Pictures To Accompany Projective Tests Of Attitudes

1

2

3

4

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7

8

The student's responses to the PTOA are analysed according to the attitudes expressed, and divided into five categories of increasing positivity toward reading.

Category 1 - contains words or descriptions which are negative in connotation; i.e., they refer to books or reading in a destructive sense, allude to difficulty associated with books or reading, or are generally unpleasant in connotation.

Category 2 - contains words pertaining to school - associated with assignments and homework activities, words pertaining to the names of school subjects, or words describing aspects of the school environment,

Category 3 - contains words of a neutral nature, ones which describe the characteristics or usage of books,

Category 4 - contains responses which tend to be library-oriented or to indicate story-book interests,

Category 5 - contains words or descriptions which are clearly positive, and which associate pleasant and enjoyable terms with books and reading.

When all responses have been rated one to five, according to the category in which they are placed and totalled high scores indicate a positive attitude toward reading while low scores indicate a negative attitude.

Although the reliability and validity of the Projective Tests of Attitude have not been determined, this instrument would be useful for testing attitudes toward reading on a subjective basis. These tests can be utilized in a pre-test to post-test situation.

REFERENCES:

Lowery, L. F., and Graffe, Wm., "Paperback Books and Reading Attitudes", The Reading Teacher, Vol. 21, No. 7 (April, 1968), 618-623.

Alexander, J. E., and Filler, R.C., "Measures of Reading Attitudes", in Elementary English, Vol. 52, No. 3 (March, 1975), 376-378.

A STUDENT'S VIEW: "WHAT IS READING?"

Jerry L. Johns

DESCRIPTION:

This informal method of measuring a student's attitude toward reading involves the question, "What is Reading?" At the elementary level, the child's attitude is elicited during individual interviews. Each child is asked some preliminary questions to create a relaxed atmosphere, and then the interviewer asks, "What is reading?" The response is recorded on tape to be analysed later. At the intermediate and secondary level, this same procedure may be followed, or, to facilitate testing a large group, the students may be requested to write an essay in reply to the same question.

Each student's response is classified into either a meaningful or a non-meaningful category. A response is considered non-meaningful if it is placed in categories 1 or 2. A response is labeled meaningful if it is placed in categories 3, 4 or 5. The categories are described as follows:

Category 1 includes no response; "I don't know"; or a vague, irrelevant or circular response such as "Reading is reading", or "When you read."

Category 2 includes responses which reflect classroom procedure or activities associated with formal reading instructions; e.g., "We take turns reading out loud in a circle."

Category 3 includes responses which describe processes involved in reading, such as word recognition or decoding: e.g., "Saying words".

Category 4 includes responses which define reading as getting meaning or understanding from words or passages; e.g., "It's when you read a story and know what it's about."

Category 5 includes responses which define reading as the process of saying words and understanding the story; e.g., "You learn the words and read the story and you're supposed to know what it is about."

REFERENCES:

Johns, J. L., "Concepts of Reading Among Good and Poor Readers", in Education, Vol. 95, No. 1 (Fall, 1974), 58-60.

Jerry L. Johns is from Northern Illinois University, DeKalb, Illinois (1974).

OTHER INFORMAL TECHNIQUES

Sentence Completion:

The teacher could construct an instrument to measure students' attitudes toward reading simply by using incomplete sentences. The student's attitude would be determined by the manner in which he completed sentences such as the following:

Reading is_____

I'd read more if_____

I like to read about_____

I enjoy reading because_____

I dislike reading because_____

Reading is difficult for me because_____

Story Completion:

The beginning of a short story about any of the many activities concerned with reading (e.g., going to the library) could be drafted by the teacher. The student would reflect his attitude toward reading in the ending he composed for such a story.

Picture Interpretation:

A student's attitude toward reading will be reflected in his interpretation of pictures which depict activities related to reading. As the student examines such pictures, his attitude can be determined by analysing his responses to the questions:

What is happening in the picture?
What led up to the picture?
What will happen after it?

Role-Playing:

A student's attitude toward reading can often be observed in his dramatization of classroom and library activities related to reading.

Diary:

A diary of a student's activities is a good record of the amount of time spent reading, and is consequently a good indication of his attitude.

DIAGNOSIS OF READING

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INTRODUCTION TO DIAGNOSIS OF READING

Helping students to read, if it is to be done effectively, should be based on a thorough knowledge of the reading strengths and weaknesses of students. But, what is a good reading diagnostic test? The answer frequently given is "There is none!" If the inquirer is seeking a single instrument equally appropriate for all levels and suitable for identifying weaknesses in all skill areas, the response, no doubt, is a valid one. On the other hand, there is a variety of standardized tests and informal measures from which a teacher can choose a collection of diagnostic tools for the evaluation of reading in the classroom.

REFERENCES:

Farr, R. Reading: What Can Be Measured? International Reading Association, 1969.

Winkley, C. K., "What do Diagnostic Reading Tests Really Diagnose?", in Diagnostic Viewpoints in Reading, Leibert, R. (Ed.), International Reading Association, 1971, 64-80.

STANDARDIZED TESTS

1. Group standardized tests are not designed to indicate how well a particular student performs in relation to others in his group or in other groups. These tests do indicate how well a group of students perform on a particular test in relation to another group of students. They are limited as valid measures of competence in the sub-skills of reading, but may be useful as a general screening device for determining the need for additional testing and may suggest the type of further assessment required.

2. If you are considering a group standardized test for reading, consult the Research Department; if you are considering the use of an individual standardized test, consult one of the reading Program Leaders. They will help you evaluate these tests in terms of reliability, validity, economy, ease of administration, adequacy of the manual, relevance of the norms provided, and appropriateness of the test objectives and content for the pupils being tested.

3. In contrast to most standardized tests, which are based on a simple selection of skills and do not reflect the total balance of the program, criterion-referenced tests (CRT) are designed to measure the student's mastery of a particular objective in a planned program. CRT's are of two types: they may be selected from a bank of commercially available items, or they may be designed by the teacher to evaluate a student's mastery of the skills of a designated component of a program. The purpose of standardized testing is to evaluate achievement in relationship to a norm. The purpose of a CRT is to evaluate the mastery of skills in a particular program with a view to reinforcing the program or moving on to a succeeding component.

INFORMAL MEASURES

The evaluation of a student's reading ability by informal means can be a reliable and valid measure. The usefulness of informal measures is dependent upon the examiner's knowledge of the reading process, and his ability to make judgements about strengths and weaknesses in reading performance and to evaluate errors. A wide variety of informal procedures, including reading interest inventories, determination of reading habits, checklists of reading skills, and informal achievement tests, may be used to assess reading performance on a continuing basis. Informal measures do not compare the performance of one student with the performance of other students, but assess how well a student performs on a set of tasks.

INFORMAL READING INVENTORY

In an Informal Reading Inventory (IRI) the teacher has the child "try a book on for size". The teacher administers it by monitoring the student's performance on a series of graded selections from actual classroom materials, and determines the functional reading level and the instructional needs of the student. The IRI may be administered to a small group (four to six students) or to an individual.

THE GROUP INFORMAL READING INVENTORY

1. The overall plan of a group inventory varies little from that for a good instructional reading activity. (See Appendix A, p.70).

2. A representative selection is chosen from material which the teacher believes to be of the approximate instructional level of the students. The selection should be long enough to permit several stops for oral discussion.

3. The first step in the inventory is to have the students preview any illustrations and subtitles and make initial predictions about the selection. Through this process the students' purposes for reading the passages are established.

4. The students read a portion of the material silently to satisfy the purposes they have established; at the same time, the teacher observes the students' rate of reading and watches for symptoms of difficulty.

5. Group discussions at intervals during and following the silent reading which focus on the students' initial and subsequent purposes, and on answers to the questions posed by the students and teacher provide an opportunity for evaluating comprehension. (See Appendix B, p.71).

6. Areas of comprehension that can be sampled, depending on the purposes for reading and the content of the selection, include:

   i identifying the main ideas
   ii noting relevant details
   iii recognizing sequence of events
   iv determining meaning from context
   v making inferences
   vi making generalization
   vii seeing cause-effect relationships
   viii making comparisons
   ix making connections between events
   x identifying purposes of the author
   xi evaluating quality, value and accuracy of content

7. Oral reading may occur spontaneously to prove a point, or a sampling may be requested by the teacher. Oral reading is a more demanding task than silent reading and therefore should not be used <u>solely</u> as a basis for diagnosis.

8. Appraisal is made of each student's comprehension of the text, his word recognition strategies and his ability to locate specific information.[1] At this point, the teacher should have evidence of each student's ability or inability to profit from instruction with the material. The student should be able to understand most of the content but will need some assistance with word recognition and comprehension. Historically the student's reading instructional level has been considered to be the level at which he accurately pronounced 95 percent of the running words and a comprehension of at least 75 percent.

9. With respect to students who have handled the material with ease, the teacher may conclude that he must re-evaluate them on more difficult material in order to establish approximate instructional levels for them. Students who experienced considerable difficulty should be re-evaluated with easier materials.

REFERENCES:

Betts, Emmett, A., Foundations of Reading Instruction, American Book, 1957, 449.

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1. See Appendix D, (p. 75) for further information regarding Reading Miscue Analysis.

THE INDIVIDUAL INFORMAL READING INVENTORY

An individual Informal Reading Inventory (IRI) can be administered by the teacher to students who did poorly on the group inventory and to those for whom more information is required. The individual IRI should be administered to the student in a private part of the classroom where there will be no interruption. The same procedure should be followed for the individual IRI as for the group IRI. A discussion with each student of his performance will help him become more aware of his progress and needs.

ANALYSIS OF ORAL LANGUAGE

MONROE AND ROGERS MODEL

In response to teachers' concerns about identifying and describing the specific aspects of language skills which constitute the individual child's language power, Monroe and Rogers have classified oral language skills into four categories:

1. How a child thinks, as revealed by the quality of his ideas.
2. How a child thinks, as revealed by the nature of his definitions of words.
3. How a child uses words, as revealed by his ability to verbalize ideas.
4. How a child uses words, as revealed by his command of sentence structure.[1]

Monroe and Rogers provide a procedure for the classroom teacher to use in evaluating students' oral language, a chart for recording, and a five-point rating scale for each of the four categories above. A five-point rating scale for quality of ideas is presented here as an example of the scales suggested by Monroe and Rogers. The teacher may find the scales useful for rating students' responses to questions during an Informal Reading Inventory. The other three scales may be found in the book.[2]

Suggested scale for quality of ideas

1. Ideas fully concrete. Concerned with the immediate environment. Objects and events seen as separate items. Not concerned with relationships.

   Example (response to a picture showing a dog jumping up to snatch an ice-cream cone from a baby's hand):

   "It's about a baby and a dog and an ice-cream cone."

---

1. Monroe, Marion, and Rogers, Bernice, Foundations for Reading, Scott, Foresman and Co. Page 208 (1964).

2. Idem.

2. Sees some objects and events in relation to one another. Relationships seen are concerned with the concrete and the here and now. Characters are related to their actions.

Examples (picture as described above):

"The baby's crying."
"The dog's jumping up."
"The baby's eating."

3. Sees relationships between objects and events, including relationships of size, shape, colour, use, distance, and cause and effect. Begins to include in his ideas some people, things, or events farther away in time or space. Recognizes simple emotional reactions and motives of characters. Forms sensory images (visual, auditory, thermal, tactile, kinesthetic).

Examples (picture as described above):

"It's a hot day."
"The baby wants the dog to go away."
"Somebody gave the baby an ice-cream cone."
"The baby's scared."

4. Sees relationships of the Level 3 variety, but tends to include the more abstract qualities as well as the concrete and immediate. Anticipates events, deduces more complex cause-and-effect relationships and time relationships. Recognizes simple character traits.

Examples (picture as described above):

"The dog wants to get the baby's cone.
I think he's going to get it, too.
He's a bad dog."

5. Ideas as at Level 4 but with the addition of some evaluation and judgement. Generalizes within the limits of his experience. Makes judgements which include the consideration of abstract concepts.

Examples (picture as described above):

"People shouldn't give babies cones when dogs are around."
"Pets are sometimes a nuisance."
"Dogs don't know any better."

HALLIDAY'S MODEL

M. A. K. Halliday, the English linguist, states that language is, for the child, a rich and adaptable instrument for the realization of his intentions. There is scarcely any limit to what he can do with it. The child's interactions with others, which begins at birth, is gradually given form by language. At a very early age, language already begins to mediate in every aspect of his experience. Through such experiences, the child builds up a very positive impression of what language is and what it is for. Halliday states that much of the child's difficulty with language in school arises because he is required to accept a stereotype of language in his first "reading and writing" tasks that is contrary to the insight gained from his own experience.

Halliday outlines seven models of language with which the normal child is endowed by the time he comes to school:

(a) The instrumental model refers to the use of language as a means of getting things done, and serves the function of "I want" in the satisfaction of material needs. Success in the use of language does not, in any way, depend on the production of well-formed adult sentences.

(b) The regulatory model refers to the use of language to regulate the behaviour of others. The child applies his awareness of language as a means of behavioural control in his own attempts to control his peers and siblings; e.g., "Do as I tell you."

(c) The interactional model refers to the use of language in the interaction between self and others, "me and him". Language is used to define and consolidate the group, to include and to exclude, showing who "is one of us" and who is not and to impose status and to contest status that is imposed. In all of these uses, ridicule, deception, persuasion, all the forensic and theatrical acts of language are brought into play.

(d) The personal model refers to the awareness of language as a form of the child's own individuality. It refers to the expression of identity or "self", which develops largely through linguistic interactions, e.g., "Here I come."

(e) The heuristic model is derived from the child's knowledge of how language has enabled him to explore his environment, and refers to language as a means of investigating reality. In saying, "Tell my why", the child seeks not merely facts but an explanation of facts.

M. A. K. Halliday is currently at the University of Sydney, New South Wales, Australia.

(f) The imaginative model refers to the child's use of language to create his own environment; not to learn how things are, but to make them as he feels inclined. It is characterized by expressions like "Let's pretend."

(g) The representational model is a means of communicating about something or expressing propositions. The child is aware that he can convey a message in language; e.g.,"I've got something to tell you."

Educational failure is often associated with language failure. The child who does not succeed in a school system is often the one who has not mastered certain essential aspects of language ability and is deficient in respect of the set of linguistic models described above. An approach to language that takes account of the child's own linguistic experience, and notes where there may be gaps, is appropriate.

REFERENCES:

Halliday, M. A. K., "Relevant Models of Language," in Educational Review, Vol. 32, No. 1 (November, 1969), 26-37.

CLOZE PROCEDURE

The Cloze Procedure, originally developed by Wilson Taylor in 1953, is an easily constructed, group-administered instrument useful both for testing comprehension and for teaching comprehension skills. It is constructed from materials present in the classroom by systematically deleting words. The pupil is then instructed to predict the exact words that are missing; in making his predictions, the pupil depends on his prior knowledge, and the general meaning of the passage. He also makes use of both the semantic and syntactic clues present. When scored, the Cloze Procedure will provide the teacher with information concerning the student's ability to use these comprehension skills. The Cloze Procedure is intended for use with transactional prose rather than literary materials.

AS A TESTING DEVICE, the Cloze Procedure has both reliability and validity when the instructions are followed closely.

1. A passage of approximately 260-300 words is randomly selected from materials that the students are using or that are intended for the students' use. This passage should be complete; that is, comprehension of it should not depend heavily on the preceding text. The first sentence is left complete. Having randomly chosen any one of the first five words of the succeeding sentence, the deletions begin with that word and include every fifth word until fifty blanks are counted. When the fifth word is a numeral or a proper noun, delete the sixth word and continue counting from there. The passage should end with a complete sentence.

2. A "word" is anything set off by blank letter spaces at either end. Parts of a hyphenated word are deleted separately, if both parts of the compound word can stand alone as separate words ('self-made' would be counted as two different words but not 'co-operate'). The passage should be reproduced with underlined blanks of standard length (usually 15 spaces) replacing the deleted words.

3. A student's responses are scored correct only when they exactly match the deleted word. Words having minor misspellings are scored correct as long as they are declined in the same way as the deleted words. Misspellings which produce words that also "make sense" in the context are scored incorrect. Synonyms are incorrect.

4. The raw scores are converted to Cloze percentages when the numbers of blanks correctly replaced is multiplied by two for a 50-item test. The criterion for the instructional reading level has been determined to be approximately 40% Cloze completion, which is comparable to 75% comprehension on a standard test. Students who fail to meet this criterion and do not correctly predict 40% of the deletions, may profit more from instruction with easier material.

AS A TEACHING DEVICE, the Cloze method has a much more informal construction. Although the same procedure is followed in designing the instrument for instructional purposes, the teacher may make many variations, according to his purpose.

1. Depending on the factual loading of the material being used, the teacher may decide to delete anywhere from every fifth to every tenth word, but once the number has been chosen, the pattern must be maintained. When deletions are made at larger intervals the passage should be lengthened correspondingly.

2. The first and last sentence should remain unmutilated to provide more context clues.

3. The length of the underlined blank space may be varied with the length of the word replaced, to provide more clues.

4. While an "exact word only" replacement is a requirement of the testing exercise, synonyms for deleted words may be accepted when the Cloze method is used for instruction.

5. Discussions should always follow an instructional Cloze exercise to enable the students to express reasons for their word choice and to enable the teacher to promote various comprehensive skills.

6. The use of such graphic clues as the provision of a word list or the first letter of the deleted word (e.g., r___), and the deletion of every tenth word, may provide the teacher with a more useful instrument.

7. The Cloze exercise is also useful for teaching students the various parts of speech; e.g., deleting selected pronouns from a passage can be an aid in teaching the correct use of pronouns.

A short example of a Cloze test in which every fifth word is deleted, is as follows:

Mention must also be made of Napoleon's work for the industry and commerce of France. Commercial exchanges and chambers _____ commerce were created, and _____ boards set up in _____ with many manufactures, arts, _____ crafts. By a system _____ high protective tariffs French _____ were sheltered from foreign _____; technical schools, prizes, loans _____ exhibitions encouraged new processes; _____ France, deprived of certain _____ articles by the Continental System, _____ to develop effective substitute _____ in the form of _____ for coffee and beet _____ cane-sugar. New cotton machines _____ invented and factory acts _____. Further, by maintaining a _____ currency based on gold, _____ of the old unreliable _____ finance, Napoleon won to _____ support all the business _____. In this direction the _____ of the Bank of France _____ a step of great _____. In fact, by an _____ series of decrees Napoleon _____ almost the whole of _____ national life - art, theatre, _____, commerce, industry, religion. The defect in it all was that the high tariffs inflicted great hardship on many consumers in the form of increased prices, and that regulation of industry can hinder as well as aid its development.

(The passage is from J. E. Cruikshank, The Modern Age, 1500-1963. Longmans, 1963, 72-73, used in the senior grades of many secondary schools).

The following is an example of the Cloze Procedure applied to a passage from a recently published primary grade reader.

THE BOARD OF EDUCATION FOR THE BOROUGH OF NORTH YORK
ENGLISH DEPARTMENT

NAME:_____ STUDENT:_____ GRADE:_____

ADMINISTRATOR:_____

Cloze Passage from: Beverley Allinson's Mumbles and Snits, Women's Press, 1975, Page 1.

Over a hill and deep in a valley nestles the land of the Mumbles. Mumbles are soft and rolypoly and every day they roll down the hills and tumble in the valley. Mumbles _____ as they roll and _____ they bounce they laugh.

_____ was once a Mumble _____ Mift who liked bouncing _____ rolling and laughing as _____ as any Mumble. Mift _____ the sort of Mumble _____ liked to keep on _____ what she liked doing. _____ night, when all the _____ were in the Mumblehut, Mift _____ to roll by herself.

_____ she chose a hill _____ hill that was just _____ bit bigger than the _____ she was used to - _____ she bounced to the top. There she lay on _____ side, took a deep _____ and waited.

As soon _____ she began rolling, she _____. Mift felt an explosion _____ laughs crowding inside her. _____ bounces became bigger and Mift's _____ grew bigger too until _____ happiness echoed in the _____.

When the Mumbles in _____ Mumblehut heard laughter in _____ night, they tumbled out _____ door and bounced toward

Mift.

"_____ are you doing, Mift?" _____ Mumble asked. "You woke _____ up."

"Bouncing," said Mift. "_____ was bouncing so high _____ almost touched the stars."

"_____." sniffed the Mumble. "Mumbles _____ bounce at night."

"And _____ never touch the stars," _____ another crossly.

"I didn't _____ touch the stars," Mift _____. "I was miles from _____ really. It just felt _____ if I might..."

But _____ Mumbles didn't hear her. _____ Mift had finished speaking, _____ were back inside the Mumblehut _____ they had shut the _____.

Mift felt too miserable _____ join them. She sat in the night and _____ why the Mumbles had _____ angry.

"If Mumbles can't _____ at night," she thought, "_____ how is it that _____, Mift the Mumble, can _____ and roll and tumble _____ when the sun is _____ longer in the sky?"

"And though it is true I didn't really touch the stars," she told herself, "what is wrong in believing that I might?"

These thoughts and others kept Mift awake all night.

INVENTORY OF WORD RECOGNITION SKILLS

This inventory can be used to supplement attitude scales and assessment of comprehension.

1. Does the student try to predict unfamiliar words independently? _____

2. Does the student use an appropriate combination of word-prediction skills? _____

3. Is the student flexible in his use of word-prediction skills? _____

   (a) Does he use context clues (See Appendix C) _____

   (b) Does he use phonetic analysis in unlocking words? _____

   (c) Does he use structured analysis in pronouncing words? _____

4. Does the student check his phonetic and structural analysis of a word by using it in context, and self-correct, if necessary to obtain meaning? _____

5. Does he recognize a word quickly the second or third time he meets it? _____

6. Does the student try to find out the meaning of a new word? _____

7. Does the student recognize the connotative meanings in given contexts?[1] _____

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1. This skill becomes increasingly important in mature reading.

SPECIAL CONSIDERATIONS AT THE SECONDARY LEVEL

A. Reading in the Content Area

A background of knowledge is required on the secondary level if students are to learn in the content areas.[1] It is recommended that teachers prepare the students for their reading assignments in new and unfamiliar aspects of the discipline. Prior introductions to the reading assignment through lectures, visual aids and discussion of difficult passages (directed reading) serves to develop a background of experience for students. Once this basic background of knowledge has been developed, independent reading may help the student to clarify and amplify concepts taught in the classroom. Assignments of difficult and unfamiliar material for reading as preparation for classroom discussion is apt to be profitless and discouraging to the student.

Teachers need be with a class only a short time before they discover a considerable range of ability and achievement among the students. The difficulties created by this disparity are compounded by the fact that texts assigned for content courses are often too difficult for most students in the class. Distribution of these texts without guidance in their use in an empty gesture. Once appropriate texts have been identified, the teacher can take such steps as the following to assist the students in their use:

1. Help students to discover the key words in the reading-related lesson and to derive the meaning of these words from contextual clues.

2. Approach the reading assignment in a manner which arouses their curiosity by creating interest in the topic and setting a purpose for the reading.

3. Direct them in their use of pictures, graphs and diagrams for obtaining information.

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1. For a fuller discussion of this point, see Harold L. Herber, Teaching Reading in Content Areas. Prentice-Hall, 1970.

Reading in the Content Areas (Cont'd).

4. Help them establish and maintain specific purposes throughout the readings by encouraging them to turn titles and sub-headings into questions.

5. Encourage them to read critically, examining material for the point of view, prejudices and reliability of the author.[1]

To promote critical reading skills in the content areas, the teacher might consider using the Group-Directed Reading-Thinking Activity described in Appendix A, page 70.

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1. Karlin, Robert, Teaching Reading in High School. The Bobs-Merrill Company, 1964; and Dechant, Emeral V., Improving The Teaching of Reading. Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964, for more detailed information.

B. Checklist of Practices Related to Reading in the Content Areas

The Checklist of Practices Related to Reading in the Content Areas lists eighteen practices which will increase effectiveness of teaching the special reading skills in the various content areas. These are provided for use by teachers who feel they need to do more in guiding their students' reading.[1]

1. The teacher knows the reading level of the textbooks being used. ☐

2. The teacher is familiar with the range of reading abilities within the class. ☐

3. The text material used is suited in difficulty to the reading levels of students. ☐

4. Students are encouraged through assignments to read widely in related materials. ☐

5. Before beginning the study of a text, adequate time is taken to introduce the text and to discuss how it may be read effectively. ☐

6. The teacher is aware of the special vocabulary and ideas introduced in the various units. ☐

7. Adequate attention is given to the development of vocabulary and ideas. ☐

8. Provision is made for checking on the extent to which important vocabulary and ideas are understood, and re-teaching is done where needed. ☐

9. The teacher knows the special reading skills required by the subject. ☐

10. The teacher teaches special reading skills required by the subject. ☐

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1. Adapted from Conducting In-Service Programs in Reading, an International Reading Association Reading Aid, IRA, 1965, 31.

11. The course content is broader in scope than a single textbook. ☐

12. Assignments are clear and concise. ☐

13. Students are taught to use appropriate reference material. ☐

14. Adequate reference materials are available. ☐

15. A variety of resource books and other material is available for students who read <u>below grade</u> level. ☐

16. A variety of resource books and other material is available for students who read <u>above grade</u> level. ☐

17. The teacher takes advantage of opportunities that may arise to encourage students to read for recreation as well as information. ☐

18. The teacher helps the poor reader to develop adequate reading skills. ☐

C. Cloze Procedure in Text Selection

As seen, the Cloze Procedure is a technique for evaluating the student's capacity to cope with a given piece of instructional material. Through this technique, materials appropriate for both basic and supplementary reading can be selected. The Procedure may be used on several texts to determine which are suitable as basic texts and which are suitable as supplementary ones. It is then possible for content teachers to allow for the variation of abilities in their classes by using the basic texts to guide learning, and, subsequently, by providing students with materials at their independent levels for further reading. The Cloze Procedure may be used by the teacher to match supplementary materials to the reading levels of the students. It is important to remember that the reading level of the student as determined by the Cloze Procedure applies only to the material being tested. For a description of the Cloze Procedure see pages 10 - 12, 48-52.

TABLE 13

ESTIMATE OF READER'S ABILITY TO READ MATERIAL BEING DIAGNOSED

Number of Blanks Correctly Replaced	Percent Correct	Reading Level
29 - 50	58 - 100%	Independent
22 - 28	44 - 57%	Instructional
0 - 21	0 - 43%	Frustrational

The student may use materials in which he can correctly replace at least 58 percent of the blanks for independent study.

The student will need to be guided in the reading of materials in which he can replace only 44 to 57 percent of the blanks.

The student should not be subjected to materials in which he can correctly replace fewer than 44 percent of the blanks.

Once the reading levels of the students have been determined for the materials the teacher has to work with, the students may be grouped according to these levels for distribution of the materials for independent study, and for discussion of the reading assignments. The use of inappropriate materials may lead to a distorted evaluation of student's abilities.

D. Checklist of Basic Reading and Study Skills

The content teacher must recognize the skills his students require for the various aspects of that particular subject discipline, and decide on teaching strategies which will enable the students to master the new concepts. The strategies may include preliminary discussion of unfamiliar terms basic to the lesson, relevance of bold-faced type in the print format, expectations of the reader arising out of a topic sentence, recall of previous related material, classifying details.

The Checklist of Basic Reading and Study Skills has been designed to help the teacher determine the strengths and weaknesses of his students. Teachers should select items on the Checklist which are particularly appropriate to the content they are teaching. Examples of how teacher-made informal tests may be constructed from appropriate items are provided on pages 56-7. The student should be reasonably proficient in this.

A Checklist of Basic Reading and Study Skills:

I Vocabulary

1. Using word analysis, context clues and the dictionary to determine meaning. ☐
2. Realizing the multiple meaning of words. ☐
3. Understanding technical vocabulary, abbreviations and symbols. ☐
4. Categorizing ideas referred to by the words (e.g., entente refers to international relations). ☐

II Comprehension Skills

1. Understanding main ideas. ☐
2. Understanding specific details. ☐

II Comprehension Skills (Cont'd)

3. Understanding organization. ☐

4. Following directions. ☐

5. Interpreting charts, diagrams, graphs, maps pictures, tables. ☐

6. Drawing inference. ☐

7. Predicting results. ☐

8. Determining cause and effect. ☐

9. Distinguishing between facts and opinions. ☐

III Study Skills

1. Using the parts of a textbook effectively. ☐

2. Understanding what is read by relating it to prior experience. ☐

3. Establishing purposes for reading. ☐

4. Recognizing the parts of the text which are relevant to their purposes. ☐

5. Seeing the organization of ideas; having an overview and seeing the relationship of the parts to the whole and of the parts to one another. ☐

IV Literature Skills

1. Understanding connotation and denotation. ☐

2. Recognizing the contribution of imagery to the meaning. ☐

IV Literature Skills (Cont'd)

3. Understanding the role and nature of figurative language. ☐

4. Understanding the relationships between character, setting, action, tone, organization and theme. ☐

5. Interpreting orally. ☐

6. Recognizing the legitimacy of literary ambiguities. ☐

V Speed of Comprehension Skills

1. Adjusting reading rate according to purpose, knowledge of content, and complexity of material. ☐

2. Maintaining high accuracy level and appropriate depth of response. ☐

3. Developing the skills of skimming and scanning for specific purposes. ☐

Questions such as the following might be included in an informal teacher-made test to measure reading skills. The examples refer to specific skills listed on the previous page.

Example 1 - (I2 Realizing the multiple meaning of words):

The word "attack" as in "a carefully designed attack on the question" means:

(a) force used against answering the question;

(b) procedure to get results;

(c) initial harmful act in solving the question;

(d) assault.

Example 2 - (II3 - Understanding Organization):

Put the following steps of a controlled experiment in the order in which they occur: attack, results, hypothesis, question,

1. _____

2. _____

3. _____

4. _____

Example 3 - (III4 - Using parts of a textbook effectively; e.g., use of glossary):

According to the author, what is a "gantry?"

_____

_____

_____

_____

E. Reading Rates

In secondary schools, where relatively vast amounts of material on a variety of subjects must be read, it is very important to students to develop the skills of skimming and scanning. To SKIM means to read lengthy passages quickly in order to gain the gist of the matter; to SCAN means to read quickly in order to locate specific items of information imbedded in a text.

It is of the utmost importance that secondary school students be able to read large quantities of materials with comprehension, and at a relatively fast rate. It is also important that they develop the ability to read intensively more obscure and unfamiliar materials. Students must be able to vary their reading rate to suit the kinds of materials they are reading and the purposes for which they are reading them. Thus, a student's reading rate should vary considerably according to whether he is reading to obtain an accurate understanding of a difficult problem, to review material that has already been reasonably well-mastered, or simply to obtain enjoyment.

REFERENCES:

Smith, Nila Banton, Read Faster - And Get More From Your Reading. Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1957.

Stauffer, Russell, G., Speed Reading Practices and Procedures. University of Delaware, 1963.

F. SQ3R[1]

The SQ3R is a good teaching technique for helping students prepare a passage on which they will be evaluated, or for an assignment. The components of the formula can be decoded as follows:

S	-	survey
Q	-	question
R	-	read
R	-	recite
R	-	review

The first step is survey, "S".

"Glance over the headings in the chapter to see the main points which will be developed. Also read the final summary paragraph if the chapter has one....This orientation will help you organize the ideas as you read them later."[1]

"Q" refers to question.

"Turn the first heading into a question. This will arouse your curiosity and so increase comprehension....The question will make important points stand out while explanatory detail is recognized as such...."

The first "R" in the plan refers to reading.

"Read to answer that question, i.e., to the end of the first headed section. This is not a passive plodding along each line, but an active search for the answer."

Thus, reading is adjusted to the purpose.
The second "R" is recitation.

"Having read the first section, look away from the book and try briefly to recite the answer to your question.... An excellent way to do this reciting from memory is to jot down cue phrases in outline form on a sheet of paper...."

This questioning, reading and recitation is repeated for each heading in a lesson.

The third "R" emphasizes review.

"....Look over your notes to get a bird's eye view of the points and their relationship and check your memory as to the content by reciting on the major sub-points under each heading...."

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1. These particular descriptions are taken from F. P. Robinson, Effective Reading, Harper Brothers, 1962.

The five steps of the SQ3R method should enable the student to read a passage more quickly while at the same time picking out the important points and committing them to memory.

OTHER INFORMAL MEASURES

1. Self-evaluation

"Most students, when encouraged to write educational autobiographies, subjective essays or other types of self-evaluation, seldom fail to show considerable insight."[1] A reading autobiography is an oral or written development history of the student's reading experiences and may take the form of a series of specific questions, a checklist, or short-answer questions. An example of a self-assessment inventory can be found in Table 13. Immediately after a student has read a selection and answered comprehensive questions, retrospective questions such as the following elicit interesting responses.

What did you do to get the main idea?
What did you do to get the details?
What did you do when you met a word you did not know?

Subjective essays, diaries of daily activities, and other informal measures will also provide diagnostic information.

TABLE 14

A SELF-ASSESSMENT INVENTORY

1. How do you rate your reading ability?
2. Do you think you need extra school help in reading?
3. What is "reading"?
4. What books have you read in the last six months?
5. What reading are you required to do at school?
6. Do you read much?

---

1. Ruth Strang, Diagnostic Teaching of Reading, McGraw-Hill, 1964, 76.

2. Ascertaining Interests

It has been proven that there is a correlation between the interest a student has in the material he is reading and his ability to cope with the complexity of the text. Thus, information about students' interests may be used by teachers in guiding the reading of individuals, in introducing books, and in capitalizing on some common interest of a group. Some methods of studying a student's interests are listed below:[1]

Observation
Written review of books read
Charts of Reading Progress
Choice of favourite stories
Rating titles or selections
Interest Inventories
Creative-type questionnaire and essays
Attitude Scales

Table 14 is an example of an interest inventory.

TABLE 15

AN INTEREST INVENTORY

Hobbies_____

Sports_____

Television_____

Movies_____

Papers and Magazines_____

Books_____

Friends_____

Clubs_____

School_____

1. Ruth Strang, Diagnostic Teaching of Reading, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1964, 76.

3. Interviews

Interviews with a student and with his parents may provide special diagnostic information in the areas of previous learning experiences, home background, out-of-school reading habits, reading interests, attitudes toward reading, and physical and emotional problems.

APPENDIX A

GROUP DIRECTED READING-THINKING ACTIVITY

The objective of a group directed reading-thinking activity (D-R-T-A) is to develop skill in critical reading. The critical reader "feeds forward" or inquires; he processes ideas selectively, and he gets feedback testing answers. As soon as a group of six to eight students in a class indicate that they can read at approximately the same level, a group D-R-T-A instruction can be initiated by the teacher. The pupils establish the purposes for which they are reading a text or set of materials. Each pupil speculates about the nature and complexity of the answers he is seeking by using to the fullest his experience and knowledge relevant to the circumstances. He then reads to test these purposes and assumptions. The pupil may find (1) the answer(s) he is seeking literally and completely stated; (2) only partial or implied answers. He then faces the need to adjust his expectations in light of the new information gained, or to suspend judgment until more reading has been done; (3) the need to declare completely new purposes for that material. Answers to questions are checked by finding supporting evidence in the text and having the groups judge its reliability. The teacher sets the climate for a D-R-T-A and directs the process by the frequent use of three questions: "What do you think?" "Why do you think so?" and "Can you prove it?"

The basic steps in a group D-R-T-A and two examples of a D-R-T-A in action may be found in Chapter 5 of New Horizons in the Language Arts, by Stauffer, et al.

REFERENCES:

Stauffer, Russell, G., Teaching Reading As a Thinking Process, Harper and Row, 1969.

Stauffer, R.G., Burrows, A. T., Monson, D.L., New Horizons in the Language Arts, Harper and Row, 1972.

Stauffer, Russell G. & Harrell, Max, M. "Individualizing reading-thinking activities". The Reading Teacher, Vol. 28, No. 8 (May, 1975), 765-9.

APPENDIX B

CREATING COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS

Creating questions for testing comprehension is a demanding task, for the quality of the questions determines their usefulness. The following suggestions for possible kinds of questions that the teacher may use to evaluate students' comprehension were published in The Reading Teacher. 1

TABLE 16

TYPES OF COMPREHENSION QUESTIONS

1.	Main Idea	(a)	open-ended questions (more revealing of a student's ability to formulate main ideas)
		(b)	questions which aid child in answering
2.	Detail Questions	-	start Who, What, Where, When
		-	should be stated simply and directly
		-	should relate to and support the main idea
3.	Inferences	-	judgement or deduction which grows logically from facts in the passage
		-	drawn from one source of information
4.	Drawing Conclusions	-	drawn from two or more sources of information or inferences in the passage
5.	Organization	(a)	author's organization of information
		(b)	sequence of events
6.	Cause and Effect	-	examiner provides either cause or effect and pupil supplies missing part
7.	Vocabulary	(a)	definition of word or phrase as commonly used
		(b)	"special" meaning of word or phrase in passage

1. Valmont's "Creating Questions for an Informal Reading Inventory", The Reading Teacher, Marcg, 1972.

The teacher should recognize that a student's failure to cite detailed factual information may be due to factors other than a weakness in comprehension. The problem may be memory or difficulty in organizing ideas for oral presentation, or a number of other disabilities.

APPENDIX C

THE USE OF CONTEXT CLUES

The most important key in identifying, or in developing an understanding of an unfamiliar word, is the context in which it is used. McCullough, in her description of the various kinds of context clues that a reader must learn to recognize readily and use skilfully, identifies three types of context clues.[1]

A. Picture Clues: A meaning which is not clear from the printed text can frequently be clarified by studying an illustration that accompanies the written matter.

B. Language Clues: These are found within the sentence or paragraph and take a variety of forms.

1. Direct explanation or definition An unknown word is explained directly within the communication:
Anyone who has read Irish tales knows about leprechauns. A leprechaun is always a shoemaker but he has a bag of gold and works magic for his friends. He's tiny, is a leprechaun, and if you once take your eyes off him he'll disappear.

2. Familiar experience An unknown word is used in relation to a familiar situation, and from this usage, the reader recognizes its meaning:
He pushed and pulled at his loose tooth. Then he felt a sharp twinge of pain and tasted blood on the tip of his tongue. His tooth was out.

3. Comparison and contrast A contrast in meaning is implied between two words in the passage. The reader who recognizes the one word can infer the meaning of the other:
Bob stopped reading at the end of the first page but Jim continued to the end of the chapter.

4. Synonym or restatement In presenting an idea, a writer may use an unfamiliar word, and, in the same communication a synonym for that word:
The mouse saw the great white owl flying over it and the sharp claws reaching down. It gave a cry of pain as the long talons sank into its back.

5. Familiar expression The word can be readily identified because it is a part of a familiar language expression:
"I want you all to pay attention to what I say," said the teacher.

---

1. Constance M. McCullough, Professor Emeritus, 1973, San Francisco State University.

6. Summary The unfamiliar word summarizes the ideas of the passage:
The doe and her fawn were grazing quietly in the meadow. Suddenly the doe raised her head and listened. Then like a flash she was off into the forest, her fawn at her heels. Something had alarmed her.

7. Reflection of a mood or situation The unfamiliar word reflects a mood that has already been established:
The wind had died down, and not even a leaf was stirring. The lake was as smooth as glass. The birds had ceased their chatter and had tucked themselves into their nests for the night. There wasn't a sound to be heard. In the silvery moonlight the whole scene was one of complete tranquility.

C. Presentation clues These are provided by the position of a word in the sentence, by its functions, by the punctuation of the sentence, and by typographical aids.

1. Position The position of a word in a sentence sometimes gives information that helps in determining its meaning:
The volcano produces a flow of red-hot, molten rock called lava.

2. Function The purpose served by a word in a sentence helps to establish its meaning:
"What's all the noise about?" he asked. "You two look as if you've seen a ghost." "But we did!" Margaret cried hysterically.

3. Punctuation (or intonation in oral language) Punctuation or intonation is used to relate ideas and explanations:
Rhododenrons, bushes that have a large pink or white flower, grew all around the park.

4. Typographical aids An author may use footnotes, or a glossary to clarify a word meaning.

REFERENCE:

McCullough, C. M., The Improvement of Reading, Third Edition, McGraw-Hill Book Co. Inc., 1961.

APPENDIX D

READING MISCUE ANALYSIS

"Reading is not an exact letter-by-letter, word-by-word, decoding process. Rather, it is a "psycholinguistic guessing game', a process which involves the integration of the child's grammatical system with his knowledge of the world and the printed page.[1]

Bob was reading aloud to his teacher, Mr. Thomas:

Bob: THE BOYS WENT THROUGH THE DARK WOODS

What was written in the book from which he was reading, and what Mr. Thomas expected him to say was:

TEXT: THE BOYS RAN THOUGH THE DARK FOREST

As Bob was reading, Mr. Thomas thought back to John's reading of the same sentence:

John: THE BOYS RAN THOUGH THE DARK FREST.

Although each of the boys substituted two words in the sentence, when Bob substituted "went" for "ran" and "woods" for "forest", he understood much more of what he was reading than did John, with his substitution of "though" for "through" and "frest" for "forest". If we accept the definition of reading as extracting meaning from the text, rather than simply decoding, it is evident that Bob was better able to handle this material. Thus, when a reader's errors are simply counted and this quantitative information is used for placement, the teacher may inadvertently be encouraging the reader to read material which is too simple or too difficult for him. The reader's errors must be evaluated according to the degree to which they disrupt the meaning of the written material. Counting the number of errors is less important than looking at their quality.[2]

Goodman and Burke, in their Miscue Analysis Theory, use the term MISCUE rather than error or mistake. A MISCUE IS DEFINED AS ANY OBSERVED RESPONSE WHICH DIFFERS FROM THE EXPECTED RESPONSE OF THE LISTENER. Thus, the substitutions made by Bob and John in their reading are MISCUES.

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1. Yetta Goodman and Carolyn Burke, "Do they read what they speak?" Grade Teacher, Vol. 86, No. 7 (March, 1969), 144.

2. Yetta M. Goodman, "Reading Diagnosis - qualitative or quantitative?" Reading Teacher, Vol. 26, No. 1 (October, 1972), 32.

Goodman asks us why we should be surprised if some of the words used in an oral rendition do not exactly match the writer's version since reading is not word calling.

Readers should be encouraged to take risks, to use their language competence to predict what would make sense when they are unsure. Students have to realise that risk-taking in reading is appropriate and that using context to decide what words mean is a proficient reading strategy.

TABLE 17

ASSESSMENT OF READERS' COMPREHENSION JUDGED BY MISCUES WHEN READING

Proficient Reader	Poor Reader
The miscues	The miscues
- maintain the same part of speech as the text word replaced	- look and sound like words being replaced
- involve the experience and background of the child with his language	- produce sentences which are not syntactically and/or semantically correct; they are disruptive of meaning
- are indicative of complex processing	- are seldom of the insertion or omission type
- cause little change to meaning	
The reader	The Reader
- regresses and correct miscues which cause greatest meaning loss	- responds to the way the word looks
- does not use correction strategy on those miscues which do not distort meaning	- responds by habitual association
	- reads very carefully word-by-word
Example* - When the chair tipped the boy fell off.	Example* - When the chair rooked, the boy fall.

*TEXT - When the chair rocked, the boy fell.

1. Goodman, Kenneth S., "The Psycholinguistics of Reading: Insights from Miscue Analysis". English Journal, Vol. 63, No. 8 (November, 1974), 64.

How can teachers make use of children's miscues as a tool to help children learn to read?

Miscues, viewed as a diagnostic instrument, are windows on the reading process. The qualitative analysis of a student's miscues can enable the teacher to help the student select appropriate written material. Miscues must be evaluated on the basis of the degree to which they disrupt the meaning. Once the miscue has been produced, it is then important to assess the effectiveness of the strategies (e.g., regression, correction) the student uses when meaning is lost. When used diagnostically, miscues are not simply errors, but indicators of how efficiently and effectively the reader is using the reading process to obtain meaning. Once the teacher has determined the reader's strengths and weaknesses through analysis of the miscues, it is possible to build upon the reader's strengths and teach the necessary reading strategies.

APPLICATION OF READING MISCUE ANALYSIS

The Reading Miscue Inventory, as designed by Goodman and Burke is a complex process for gathering the information required for formulating a reading program.[1]

> The teacher records the student's reading of an unfamiliar selection, sitting beside the student and marking miscues on a worksheet. No assistance may be provided. After the selection has been read the student is asked to retell the story in his own words. The teacher asks no leading questions, but probes, using the student's own words until the student has offered as many details of plot, characters and description as he can recall.
>
> The first fifty miscues are transferred to, and evaluated on, a coding sheet. Each of nine inventory questions are answered for each miscue, allowing the teacher to determine relevant grammar meaning relationships. Using the results of the coding sheets and the retelling score, the teacher prepares a profile chart for the student. The pattern of strengths and weaknesses taken from this chart provides the basis for planning the reading program for that individual.

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1. Goodman, Yetta M., and Burke, Carolyn L., Reading Miscue Inventory, Manual Procedure for Diagnosis and Evaluation. Collier-Macmillan Can. Ltd., 1972.

The process is complex and time-consuming for the teacher with reading programs to develop for thirty students. An alternative process for evaluating the miscues a reader makes can be used by the teacher any time the student reads orally. The miscue may be analysed on the spot, or jotted down to be analysed at a future time. The teacher should consider the following questions in evaluating the miscues a reader makes:

1. Is the miscue corrected? Successfully or unsuccessfully?

2. To what extent does the miscue look like the expected response (graphic similarity)?

3. To what extent does the miscue sound like the expected response (phonetic similarity)?

4. Is the grammatical function of the miscue the same as that of the expected response?

5. Is the sentence containing the miscue syntactically acceptable in the story?

6. Is the sentence containing the miscue semantically acceptable in the story?

7. Is there a change in meaning involved in the story?

8. Is the reader's dialect involved in the miscue?

REFERENCES:

Formosa, Brenda, Lecture 6 -Miscue Analysis Theory, Typescript from The Reading Course, - 1974-1975, North York.

Goodman, Yetta, "I Never Read Such a Long Story Before." English Journal, Vol. 63, No. 8 (November, 1974), 65-71.

Goodman, Yetta, "Using Children's Reading Miscues for New Teaching Strategies." The Reading Teacher, Vol. 23, No. 5 (February, 1970), 455-459.

READING QUESTIONNAIRE

The Reading Questionnaire was designed to discover the measurement techniques currently in use in North York classrooms for evaluating reading. The teachers sampled were asked to describe the most effective measurement technique, or techniques, that they have used in evaluating their students' reading, and to include copies of these instruments, if available.

Questionnaires were distributed in the fall of 1975 to all members of the 1975 Reading Course and approximately 35% were completed and returned.

Approximately one-third of the teachers surveyed use some form of standardized testing and/or informal observation.

Since copies of instruments used were seldom included with the returned questionnaire, the information obtained through this survey has been listed in general categories for presenting in the following table. Since a number of respondents mentioned more than one technique, the total "percent mentioning" is greater than one hundred.

TABLE 17

RESPONSES ON QUESTIONNAIRE RE MEASUREMENT TECHNIQUES CURRENTLY USED IN NORTH YORK

RESPONSE	% MENTIONING
Formal or standardized testing	38
Daily observation or assessment[1]	32
Individual student-teacher conferences	28
Daily assignments, reading logs, written work	18
Informal teacher-made tests	18
Tests included in Basal Reader	13
Informal reading inventory	11
Group discussions based on stories; and questioning	11
Evaluation of listening skills, oral comprehension and oral	9
Miscue Analysis	9
Listening to oral reading	9
Oral or written book reports	8
Diagnostic tests	6
Checklist of reading skills	4
Miscellaneous	15
BASE (Number of Respondents)	53

1. In describing their methods of daily assessment, the teacher included the following:

   - determination of the amount the students use the resource centre and/or library
   - determination of their ability to answer questions, follow directions
   - evaluation of daily speech vocabulary
   - determination of the student's interest in reading and attitudes toward reading
   - determination of the level and type of book the child chooses for independent reading
   - determination of the amount the student reads in his spare time
   - listening to student as he reads orally

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